A 1607/1609.

SKETCH

[ANON]

OF

UNIVERSAL HISTORY,

FROM

THE EARLIEST TIMES,

TO

THE YEAR 1763;

DISTINCTLY DIVIDED INTO

AGES AND PERIODS,

FOR THE ASSISTANCE OF THE MEMORY.

BY A LADY.

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ADVERTISEMENT.

SO brief a review of general hiſtory has not, perhaps, been attempted before: yet it cannot be without its uſe. Should it be thought too conciſe, which it is hoped it is not, to convey the firſt inſtructions in the ſcience of Hiſtory; it may certainly ſerve as a guide to the mind, in collecting ſcattered informations into general notions, or as an aſſiſtant to the memory, in retracing what has elſewhere been acquired. Conſiderable pains have been taken to give it that hiſtorical correctneſs, which, for ſuch purpoſes, it ought to poſſeſs. Yet the uſual indulgence of the public towards a female pen will, probably, be not unneceſſary.

ERRATA.

In ſo ſhort a work, errors of the preſs may, perhaps, be thought unpardonable; but ſome circumſtances attended the correction of theſe ſheets which cauſed the following miſtakes to be overlooked: it is hoped the public will excuſe them.

Page 17. l. 11. after *is*, inſert *for a time.*
—— 20. l. 18. after *as were*, inſert *in the North.*
—— 24. l. 19. dele *ſame.*
—— 33. l. 11. for *poſſeſſed*, read *enjoyed.*
—— 34. l. 20 & 21. point thus, *the princes, chiefs of the Cruſaders, founded*, &c.
—— 36. l. 5. read 1199, as in margin.
—— ib. l. 6. dele *of kingdom.*
—— 40. l. 10. for *domination*, read *dominion.*
—— 41. l. 11. for *republic*, read *republics.*
—— 43. l. 7. for *archbiſhop*, read *archbiſhops.*
—— ib. l. 8. for *Mayenne*, read *Mayence.*
—— 46. l. 17. for *Timur Beck*, read *Timur Bec.*
—— 49. l. 15 & 16. for *gave him*, &c. read *gave the princeſs Catharine in marriage to Henry*, &c.
—— 57. l. 25. in text and margin, for 1440, read 1540.
—— 61. l. 3. for *encreaſed*, read *increaſed.*
—— ib. l. 22. for *houſe*, read *duke.*
—— 63. l. 2. for 1692, read 1649, in text and margin.
—— 70. l. 9 & 10. read thus, *but being exhauſted by the war, though ſucceſsful in it*, &c.
—— 72. l. 9, 10 & 11. read thus, *and that in default of the imperial, the Spaniſh branch ſhould ſucceed.*
—— 92. l. 13. after *Britiſh*, inſert *arms.*

A SKETCH OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

DIVISION OF HISTORY.

HISTORY may be divided, with respect to time, into Ancient History, that of the Middle Age, and Modern.

Ancient History extends from the Creation to the Birth of Christ.

The Middle Age begins with the Christian æra, and ends with the fourteenth century.

From that period to the present time extends Modern History.

In order to facilitate the study of history, each of these portions may be divided into periods, dated from events of particular importance.

According to this mode of division, Ancient History will contain seven periods, that of the Middle Age five, and Modern three.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

THE firſt period of Ancient Hiſtory contains, according to the Hebrew text of the Pentateuch, about 1656 years; namely, from the Creation to the Flood.

The ſecond, according to the ſame authority, contains about 800 years; from the Flood to the departure of the Iſraelites from Egypt. But ſince, according to the Septuagint, theſe two periods ſhould be longer, we cannot with preciſion aſcertain the chronology of theſe early times.

The third period contains alſo about 800 years, from the departure of the Iſraelites from Egypt to the foundation of Rome; 753 years before the birth of Chriſt. The event which forms the limit of this period, will alſo afford the moſt convenient æra from which to date the remainder of Ancient Hiſtory; and the times becoming now more fruitful in great events, our ſubſequent periods will be ſhorter than the former.

The fourth period, therefore, extends only from the foundation of Rome to the taking of Babylon by Cyrus, in the year of Rome 216.

The

The fifth, from thence to the invaſion of Aſia, by Alexander the Great, in the year of Rome 420.

The ſixth, from that event to the final deſtruction of Carthage, in the year of Rome 608.

The ſeventh, and laſt period, comprizes the interval between the ruin of Carthage and the Birth of Chriſt, which happened in the year of Rome 753.

MIDDLE AGE.

THE firſt period of this portion of hiſtory, which commences with the Chriſtian æra, extends to the year 312, when Conſtantine the Great embraced the Chriſtian faith.

The ſecond, to the fall of the Roman empire in the Weſt, in the year 476.

The third, carries us to the nominal revival of that empire, by Charlemagne, when he cauſed himſelf to be crowned emperor at Rome, in the year 800.

The fourth period extends as far as the firſt cruſade, in 1096.

The fifth is continued to the expiration of the fourteenth century.

MODERN HISTORY.

THE first period of Modern History extends from the end of the fourteenth century to the year 1519, when Charles the Fifth was elected emperor of Germany.

The second, from thence to the year 1643, when Louis the Fourteenth began to reign in France.

The third will conclude the survey of events, by conducting us down to our own times.

The following pages contain a concise and distinct review of these several periods; and will, it is hoped, evince the utility of the divisions here suggested.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

FIRST PERIOD.

From the Creation to the Flood, A. M. 1656.

THIS period, though very long, offers only few events; these are, however, events of the greatest importance:—The creation of this world, the origin of all things,

things, the placing of the first man in Paradise, his disobedience and punishment, and the covenant which God vouchsafed to make with him after his fall. We observe also in this period the manners of the immediate descendants of the first man, and the invention of some useful arts: we see also the corruption of mankind begun, through the intermarriage of the sons of God with the daughters of men, as the scriptures express it; in other words, through the union of the righteous posterity of Seth with the depraved offspring of Cain, and lastly, that fatal consequence of this corruption, when grown to its height—the destruction of the whole race of mankind, one righteous family excepted, by the just though dreadful judgment of an offended God.

SECOND PERIOD.

From the Flood till the Departure of the Israelites from Egypt, A. M. 2456, *or* 2500.

THIS period calls our attention, first to the covenant God made with Noah after the flood, promising never

again to deſtroy mankind by water. We ſee in it alſo the diſperſion of men, and the peopling of the whole earth by the ſons of Noah, Shem, Ham, and Japhet, whoſe deſcendants ſettled reſpectively in Aſia, Africa, and Europe; the origin of the diverſity of languages and manners, and the riſe of empires in the foundation of many eminent cities.

Babylon was built by Nimrod, the firſt conqueror, on the ſite of Babel. After that, at ſeveral periods, hardly aſſignable with any certainty, Nineveh, Damaſcus, Sidon, and Thebes in Egypt. The kingdom of Sicyon, in Peloponneſus, is ſaid to have
A. M. 1915. been founded about A. M. 1915, and that of Athens by Cecrops, who brought a co-
A. M. 2448. lony from Egypt in 2448.

If we turn our eyes to religious matters, this period ſhews us alſo the beginning of that idolatry which in a ſhort time infected the whole world. But we ſee, at the ſame time, how God preſerved the pureſt religion among the Hebrew patriarchs, by the covenant he made with Abraham, about 430 years after the Flood. How he appointed Abraham, for the reward of his faith,

ſaith, to be the father of that people from which the Meſſiah was to be born: calling him from Chaldea to Canaan, the land which he promiſed to his poſterity. In proceſs of time we ſee his deſcendants, Jacob and his children, departing from that very land to ſettle in Egypt, yet only to return thither with more ſtrength; and, in the mean time, ſo increaſing under the protection of their God, as to become a numerous people, and to excite the jealouſy of the Egyptians. It may not be improper to obſerve, that during this period happened the flood of Deucalion in Theſſaly, which was miſtaken by the Greeks for the univerſal deluge; and that his ſon Hellen reigned in Greece, whence the Greeks were ſometimes called Hellenes.

THIRD PERIOD.

From the Departure of the Iſraelites from Egypt till the Foundation of Rome, A. M. 3256, before Chriſt 753.

A. M. 3256. A. C. 753.

THIS period ſhews us God's choſen people leaving Egypt, under the conduct of Moſes, and receiving from him

the written law, given by God himſelf, in order to preſerve among them true religion, by a civil polity, and a mode of worſhip calculated to ſeparate and diſtinguiſh them from every other nation. While they conquered the land of Canaan, Ninus, ſon of Bel, founded the firſt Aſſyrian empire, of which Nineveh; already famous, became the capital. Thoſe who give it 1300 years duration, reckon from the foundation of Nineveh, and thoſe who ſay it laſted but 520 years, from Ninus. During his reign Tyre, ſo famous afterwards by her trade, navigation, and colonies, was found-
A. C. 1252. ed, or rather renewed, about 1252 years before Chriſt. Hercules and Theſeus ſignalized themſelves in Greece, already enlightened by her intercourſe with Egypt, and the Eaſt. The ſiege of Troy, of which it is not eaſy to fix the exact time, but which is ſuppoſed to have been concluded
A. M. 2820. about the year of the world 2820, gave them an opportunity of diſplaying their valour and genius.

Meanwhile the Jews had taken poſſeſſion of the Promiſed Land, by deſtroying thoſe idolatrous nations which inhabited it.

They

They were governed at firſt by judges, under God's immediate direction, and afterwards by kings, of whom David and Solomon were the moſt illuſtrious: the latter finiſhed building the temple of Jeruſalem in the year of the world 3000. The revolt of ten of the twelve tribes, which happened in the reign of his ſon Rehoboam, formed two kingdoms, that of Juda, and that of Iſrael, mutually weakened by their diviſion. A. M. 3000.

Meanwhile Egypt and Chaldea made rapid progreſs in the arts and ſciences; the former had at once a conqueror and legiſlator in her king Seſoſtris, and was by him rendered no leſs famous for excellent laws, than for ſuperb edifices.

While the Arabs, and afterwards the Jews and Syrians, carried on by navigation their trade with India, the Phœnicians extended their navigation, and ſettled their colonies on all the coaſts of the Mediterranean, in Africa, Spain, and Sicily. They founded Carthage about A. M. 3112, where Dido thought this city, like Tyre, might become powerful by its trade and navigation. A. M. 3112.

The kings of Aſſyria reigned at that time in Upper Aſia. China was already remarkable for her civil policy. The warlike Scythians made incurſions in Europe and Aſia. Zoroaſter, legiſlator of Bactriana, taught the Magi the ſcience of aſtronomy, the worſhip of the ſun, and the art of governing. There were alſo prieſts and philoſophers in India, called Bramins or Brachmans, and Druyds in Gaul.

Little is known of thoſe Celtic nations which over-ran Gaul, Britany, part of Spain, and the North of Italy; or of the Teutones, who were divided into tribes, and filled that part of Europe afterwards called Germany, at that time for the moſt part a deſert overgrown with woods. The more Northern nations were ſtill leſs known, having remained longer in a ſtate of barA. M. 2900. bariſm. Eighty years after the ſiege of Troy, the deſcendants of Hercules, or Heraclidæ, returned into Peloponneſus, where they reigned in divers cities, as Argos, Lacedemon, Corinth, Mycene. The Olympic games, inſtituted by Hercules, and A. M. 3228. laid aſide, were renewed, A. M. 3228, and celebrated every fifth year;—they formed an æra

æra from which the Greeks dated ever after. About A. M. 3128 Lycurgus gave laws to the Spartans. Athens, and moſt of the Greek cities, had now ſhaken off the yoke of kings, and erected themſelves into republics. Greece having made rapid progreſs in navigation, after having increaſed her ſtrength and improved her civilization by the reception of foreign colonies, founded ſome in her turn on the coaſts of Aſia Minor, in Sicily, and in the more Northern parts of Italy. Kings of the poſterity of Æneas reigned at Alba: from theſe Romulus and Remus were deſcended, who, before they laid the foundation of Rome, re-eſtabliſhed their grandfather Numitor on the Alban throne. A. M. 3128.

About the year of the world 3184 the Aſſyrian empire came to an end, in the perſon of its effeminate monarch Sardanapalus. It was indeed renewed by Phul in 3227; but was ſoon after diſmembered, by the ſeparation of more than one powerful kingdom. A. M. 3184. A. M. 3227.

FOURTH PERIOD.

From the Foundation of Rome to the taking of Babylon by Cyrus, Year of Rome 216, before Chriſt 538.

A. C. 753. ROME, which was to be miſtreſs of the world, was founded by Romulus, 753 years before Chriſt. A very few years after 747. this, namely, 747 years before Chriſt, the kingdom of Babylon was founded by Nabo- 700. naſſar; and in 700, that is, in the 54th year of Rome, that of Media by Dejoces, who built Ecbatana: both theſe kingdoms were taken out of Aſſyria. Cyaxares was king in Media; Nebuchadnezzar ruled in Babylon; he conquered many nations, took Jeruſalem, and carried her king and people into his dominions. In this captivity the prophet Daniel ſaw a viſion, which enabled him to explain the king's dream, by a prediction afterwards circumſtantially fulfilled by the conqueſts of Cyrus, Alexander, and the Romans.

The kings of Babylon and Lydia, though very powerful, gave way at length

to Cyrus king of Perſia, who ſucceeded his uncle Cyaxares in Media, and had united thoſe four powerful kingdoms under himſelf, in the year of Rome 216. This was U. C. 216. a favourable æra to the Jews, whom he ſuffered to return to Judea, and to rebuild Jeruſalem, and the temple, the ſeventy predicted years of their captivity being now accompliſhed.

The Greeks had now begun to diſtinguiſh themſelves by the arts and ſciences which they had learned of the Egyptians and Phœnicians. Solon, one of their celebrated wiſe men, gave laws to Athens about the year of Rome 160. The Ionians U. C. 160. founded a colony at Marſeilles ſixteen years after; and in the year of Rome 180 the U. C. 180. Gauls under Belloveſe ſettled in the North of Italy, and others, under Segoveſe his brother, in Germany. Rome acquired a degree of ſtability, under her firſt kings, by incorporating into the number of her citizens thoſe of the neighbouring towns ſhe had conquered, particularly thoſe of Alba.

FIFTH

FIFTH PERIOD.

From Cyrus to Alexander; or from the Year of Rome 216 *to the Year* 420.

THE fifth period ſhews the ſucceſſion of the powerful kings of Perſia, from Cyrus; the conqueſt of Egypt by his ſon Cambyſes; and the unſucceſsful efforts of Darius and Xerxes againſt the liberty of Greece. It was in the time of this Darius (called Hydaſpes, to diſtinguiſh him from others of the name) that Rome aboliſhed monarchy, by the expulſion of her ſeventh king, Tarquinius Superbus, in the year of Rome 244, and eſtabliſhed the conſular government; but was at firſt a weak and reſtleſs republic.

U. C. 244.

This is the moſt brilliant age of Greece, in which ſhe was equally fruitful in warriors, philoſophers, and writers of every kind. But thoſe Greek cites, ſo ſtrong by their diſcipline while united, were weakened by their diviſions. Athens, Lacedemon, Thebes, claimed by turns the pre-eminence; and what Darius and Xerxes could

could not do with innumerable armies, Philip, king of Macedon, about a century and a half afterwards, availing himſelf of their diviſions, accompliſhed, partly by ſtrength, partly by corruption.

Sicily was divided between the Carthaginians and the Greek colonies, governed ſometimes by kings, and ſometimes by civil magiſtrates. Syracuſe, the moſt powerful, tolerated ſome of her tyrants, and expelled others.

China, where induſtry had long flouriſhed, under a peaceful government, received about this time, from Confucius, the fineſt precepts of morality and policy.

SIXTH PERIOD.

From Alexander's Invaſion of Aſia, till the Ruin of Carthage; or from the Year of Rome 420 *to the Year* 608.

THE beginning of this period ſhews the continuation of the fulfilment of Daniel's prophecy, by the riſe of a new power. Alexander, king of Macedon, and almoſt wholly maſter of Greece, undertook to

overthrow the great empire of Perſia;—was ſucceſsful, and carried his victorious arms as far as India. His ſucceſſion, divided between his four generals, formed the four kingdoms of Macedon, Thrace, Egypt, and Syria, the laſt including Babylonia; and ſoon after thoſe of Bactriana, Parthia, Pontus, Cappadocia, Bithynia, Pergamos. The language and cuſtoms of Greece were thus introduced into Egypt, and great part of the Eaſt. Meanwhile, the Gauls under Brennus came into Aſia Minor, where they ſettled in Gallo-Græcia, or Galatia. A remainder of love for liberty had made the Greeks unite, and oppoſe the Achæan league to the ambition of the kings of Macedon. Meanwhile Rome acquired ſtrength by the ſeverity of her manners and diſcipline: ſhe repulſed Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, ſubdued Italy, learned navigation, and weakened Carthage by the two firſt Punic wars, oppoſing to Hanibal her great generals, Fabius, Marcellus, and Scipio. She then carried her victorious arms into Sicily, Spain, Gaul, and Greece; conquered Macedonia by her general, Paulus Æmilius; humbled the kings of Syria; broke the laſt

rampart

rampart of the liberty of Greece by deſtroying Corinth, which put an end to the Achæan league; and in the very ſame year overthrew, by the ſecond Scipio, Carthage, that rival of her grandeur, which ſtill gave umbrage even by her name.

SEVENTH PERIOD.

From the Ruin of Carthage to the Birth of Chriſt; or from the Year of Rome 608 *to the Year* 753.

HEnceforward hiſtory is almoſt entirely engroſſed by one nation.—Rome, now miſtreſs of Spain, and of that part of Africa which had belonged to the Carthaginians, conquered alſo Numidia and Mauritania, carried her arms further into Gaul, effected alſo the entire ſubjection of Greece, from whence were brought the arts and ſciences; and that of Aſia Minor, whence ſhe derived the deſtructive taſte for luxury.

The Jews, ſubjected formerly to the kings of Perſia, and afterwards vexed by thoſe of Egypt and Syria, found in the Maccabees

Maccabees or Aſmoneans, chiefs of their own nation, and at the ſame time pontiffs, ſtrenuous defenders of their religion and privileges.

Marius and Sylla, who had triumphed over the enemies of Rome, weakened it by inteſtine commotions. Pompey, after having overcome Mithridates king of Pontus, conquered the kingdom of Syria, and extended the dominion of the Romans as far as the Euphrates, where the Parthians alone dared to oppoſe him. Julius Cæſar completed the entire ſubjection of Gaul, and carried the Roman ſtandard from the banks of the Rhine to thoſe of the Thames. But whilſt this republic became ſo formidable by her arms, her manners were corrupted by luxury, and ſhe was the theatre of civil wars, firſt between Cæſar and Pompey, and afterwards between Auguſtus and Anthony.

Cæſar, ever ſucceſsful, reigned with abſolute ſway over his country, under the title of Perpetual Dictator; and after him Auguſtus, the firſt who aſſumed that of Emperor. Cato and Cicero periſhed, after many unſucceſsful efforts to preſerve the public

public liberty. Rome, become a monarchy, added Egypt to the number of her provinces.

It was under the peaceful government of Auguſtus, that Jeſus Chriſt was born, in Judea, according to the covenant God had made with Adam, Noah, and Abraham, and the promiſe he gave afterwards to their deſcendants the Jews, by his prophets—That out of their nation ſhould be born, of a pure Virgin, the Saviour of Mankind.

MIDDLE AGE.

FIRST PERIOD.

From the Birth of Chriſt till the Converſion of Conſtantine to Chriſtianity, A. D. 312.

THE hiſtory of the Middle Age is confined during four centuries to that of the Roman people, as the Roman empire comprehended very nearly all the known world. While Rome had a ſucceſſion of emperors, elected firſt by the ſenate, and afterwards by the army, the ſalutary doctrine of the goſpel was preached by the diſciples of

of Chriſt in all the Roman provinces, as far as India: but Judea, no leſs deſolated by her factions than by the Roman armies, ſaw the deſtruction of Jeruſalem, her temple reduced to aſhes, and her citizens diſperſed for ever, as had been long before circumſtantially predicted.

The Roman empire having attained the higheſt pitch of grandeur under Trajan, was maintained in it by the three wiſe princes who ſucceeded him, Hadrian, Antoninus, and Aurelius: but was torn and weakened, during the third century, by the licence and diſcord of its armies, which contended on every vacancy for the choice of a ſovereign. The kingdom of Parthia was conquered by Perſia, ever oppoſed to the Romans in the Eaſt; as were the Barbarians which inhabited the countries next the Rhine and the Danube. Of the three centuries which this firſt period contains, two are illuſtrious for the progreſs of arts and ſciences; but the laſt is tarniſhed by the feuds of the empire. In the mean while, however, Chriſtianity was eſtabliſhed, even amidſt the perſecutions by which the Pagan emperors ſought to aboliſh it.

SECOND

SECOND PERIOD.

From the Year of Chriſt 312 *till the Fall of the Empire in the Weſt, A. D.* 476.

AT length the church enjoyed permanent peace under the long reign of Conſtantine the Great, who, having become one of her members, was of courſe her ſupport againſt further perſecutions. He made, by removing the imperial reſidence, a ſecond Rome of Byzantium, thenceforth called Conſtantinople. His ſucceſſors were in general zealous for the propagation of the goſpel, ſo that Paganiſm was aboliſhed by degrees, notwithſtanding the efforts of the emperor Julian to re-eſtabliſh it. But by this worldly proſperity the church loſt much of her primitive purity; ſuperſtitions were very ſoon introduced, and with them vain and frivolous diſputes. The biſhops of large cities aſſumed great power and influence, forming by degrees an hierarchy too independent on civil government, the ſplendor and authority of which it rivalled;

and

and conſtraint became an authorized method of making converts to Chriſtianity. Monaſtic life recommended itſelf at firſt by its edifying regularity: this was carried too far, and became ſubject to abuſes.

The Roman empire retained ſtill, in ſome degree, its former greatneſs, till the death
A. D. 395. of Theodoſius, in 395. But under his two ſons, Arcadius and Honorius, the Weſtern empire, which fell to the latter, was almoſt entirely invaded by divers nations, which came from beyond the Rhine and the Danube; the Vandals, who ſettled in Spain, and the Northern coaſt of Africa; the Viſigoths, in the South of Gaul and the North of Spain; the Burgundians, in the Eaſt of Gaul; and the Heruli in Italy. Rome, gorged with the blood and plunder of ſo many nations, became in her turn the prey of Barbarians, and being taken by Odoacer, king of the Heruli, ceaſed to be the ſeat of empire. At Conſtantinople, however, the Eaſtern emperors ſtill maintained the majeſty of the Roman name. It may be worthy the remark, that amidſt theſe broils the city of Venice was founded.

THIRD

THIRD PERIOD.

From A. D. 476 till Charlemagne, Emperor, A. D. 800.

THE ſucceſs of theſe firſt invaſions occaſioned freſh ones. The Franks croſſed the Rhine under their king Clovis, and founded alſo a powerful monarchy in Gaul in 486, which became ſtill more formidable by the conqueſt of all the countries which had belonged to the Burgundians. A. D. 486. The Oſtrogoths, under Theodoric, came, with the conſent of the emperors of Conſtantinople, to take poſſeſſion of Italy by the expulſion of the Heruli, in 493. A. D. 493. The Anglo-Saxons ſettled in South Britain after the Romans had left it, and founded their ſeven kingdoms, uſually called the Heptarchy.

Meanwhile the Roman name ſeemed to acquire new luſtre under Juſtinian, emperor of the Eaſt, who deſerved the title of legiſlator, for having had the Roman laws properly digeſted, and formed into a code.

In

In the mean time he recovered, by his generals, Africa from the Vandals, and Italy from the Oſtrogoths. But his good fortune did not ſurvive him. Soon after his death the Lombards invaded Italy, and became maſters of the Northern half, while the reſt was preſerved with difficulty, and governed by exarchs who reſided at Ravenna.

Theſe new nations of conquerors, who iſſued from Germany and the North to new-model the face of Europe, eſtabliſhed in moſt of the vanquiſhed countries that mode of government called the feudal, in which the aſſembly of the nobles governed jointly with the king; while the peaſants were ſlaves, who, under the want of trade, could never have attempted to form a middle claſs, ſuch as that of our free citizens. Theſe ſame people, originally Pagans, ſoon became Chriſtians; they even adopted the language of the vanquiſhed Romans, corrupting it variouſly, and mixing it with their native idioms, from which mixture and corruption aroſe, in time, the Italian, French, and Spaniſh languages.

The barbariſm of theſe people, and the deſolated ſtate of Europe, did not contribute

bute a little to introduce ignorance, the undoubted mother of ſuperſtition. Scarce did the clergy preſerve the firſt elements of ſcience, by means of thoſe books which eſcaped in monaſteries from the general wreck of literature in that turbulent and unhappy period.

Although the Eaſt was more enlightened, Chriſtianity ſuffered there a dreadful check, firſt by the violent diſputes about the worſhip of images; and afterwards by the birth of Mahometaniſm in Arabia, A. D. 622, ſo called from Mahomet, who founded at once the empire of the Saracens, and their religion: a religion the more likely to make converts, as its tenets flattered the paſſions of mankind. It was not left, however, to try its own ſucceſs, but was propagated by blood and conqueſt. A. D. 622.

The caliphs of the Saracens, who ſucceeded Mahomet, like him propagated their religion by extending their dominions. Having conquered Perſia, they turned their arms againſt the emperors of the Eaſt, and became maſters of Syria, Paleſtine, Sicily, and Africa; from whence, croſſing the Mediterranean, they deſtroyed the kingdom of

A. D. 712. the Goths in Spain, in 712. They ſeemed to threaten to invade all Europe, but Charles Martel, mayor of the palace in France, oppoſed and checked them by his victories, enabling the Goths to remain in the North of Spain (and chiefly in Aſturias) till a more favourable juncture. Pepin, his ſon, no leſs able than his father, was thought worthy, by the French biſhops and the nobles, of the title of king, which they added to that regal authority he already poſſeſſed. His ſon Charlemagne raiſed his name to the higheſt pitch of glory, by deſtroying the kingdom of the Lombards, and thus becoming king of Italy; by conquering part of Spain from the Saracens; and finally, by ſubduing the Saxons, and taking poſſeſſion of all Germany, where he eſtabliſhed the Chriſtian religion. Nor did he ſhew himſelf leſs great by the care he took to revive a taſte for the ſciences; and by making good laws, both civil and eccleſiaſtical. His great actions, and ſtill more the aſſiſtance which he and his father had afforded the city of Rome againſt the Lombards, procured him the title of Emperor of the Weſt, with which

which dignity he was inveſted at Rome in the year 800, by the biſhop of that city, already diſtinguiſhed from other biſhops by the authority he exerciſed over all the churches of the Weſt, and by the title of Pope, which has been aſſumed by all his ſucceſſors. This biſhop became alſo a temporal prince, by the power he obtained from the kings of this family over the city of Rome, and extenſive territories in its neighbourhood. This example was ſoon followed in Germany, and other countries, where thoſe biſhops and abbots who were poſſeſſed of fiefs and ſeigniories ranked among the chief nobility in public councils, and took ſo much part in ſtate affairs, that they ſeemed to retain only the name of eccleſiaſtics. A. D. 800.

FOURTH PERIOD.

From the Year 800 *to the Firſt Cruſade, in the Year* 1097.

THE ſucceſſors of Charlemagne could not preſerve the ſuperb fabric he had erected: for, beſides that they were inferior to him in point of genius, this empire was

ſoon broken by the cuſtom which then prevailed of dividing the paternal territories among the children. The regal power was further ſhaken by the inſtitution of certain great offices; while, from the grant of conſiderable hereditary fiefs and ſeigniories, aroſe a number of princes, almoſt independent of the ſovereign, and little inferior to him in power. Such were, in France, the dukes of Aquitain, Burgundy, and Britany, the counts of Toulouſe, Anjou, and Flanders. To the number of theſe great fiefs, in the year A. D. 912, was added Normandy, ſo named at that time from the Normans, who coming from the North of Europe, by their long-continued vexations of the coaſt obliged the kings of France to cede this province to them. About the ſame time, but rather earlier, two new kingdoms were founded, viz. thoſe of Arles and Burgundy Transjurane, of which the latter ſoon ſwallowed up the former.

The extinction of the houſe of Charlemagne beyond the Rhine, at the death of Louis IV. and the weak ſtate of that branch of it which reigned in France, enabled many princes to take ſucceſſive poſſeſſion of Italy; and encouraged

raged the German nobles to inveſt themſelves with the ſpoils of the imperial power, and the right of diſpoſing of that crown which had hitherto been hereditary. Accordingly, in 912, the diet of the biſhops, princes, and ſtates of Germany, elected Conrad count of Franconia. Otho the Great, the third in ſucceſſion from him, added Italy to his German dominions; and as king of Italy was crowned at Milan; as emperor, at Rome. From this latter circumſtance it was that the popes took occaſion to ſtand forward as the legal diſpoſers of the imperial crown. They alſo contrived that all the clergy of the Latin church ſhould acquire exceſſive revenues and privileges, and acknowledge their ſupremacy; and that they ſhould, like the monks, obſerve celibacy. The quarrels of the popes with the patriarchs of Conſtantinople prevented them from exerting their authority over the Greek church and its various dependencies; and this ſchiſm between the Greek and Latin churches ſtill continues. Theſe exorbitant pretenſions of the Roman pontiffs, although they took riſe in an age of ignorance and

barbariſm, met nevertheleſs with oppoſition; and in order to eſtabliſh them, they were obliged to ſtruggle ſeverely with the German emperors.

But at length the policy of Rome prevailed, and the pope for ſeveral ages was regarded as the father and umpire of all the princes of Europe. The kingdoms of Arles and Burgundy, left as legacies to Conrad
A. D. 1032. the Second, in 1032, were no ſmall acquiſition to the empire of Germany. Denmark and Sweden began then to emerge from obſcurity; theſe countries were governed by kings, and had embraced Chriſtianity. A new people from Scythia, the Huns, or Hungres, having taken poſſeſſion of the country which ſtill retains their name, (Hungary) became alſo Chriſtians, and eſtabliſhed a monarchy, which continued in their hands for many centuries. The Venedi, or Sclavonians, had made themſelves maſters of Bohemia, Luzatia, Poland, and Ruſſia, where they introduced their language, and had their ſovereigns or dukes. Theſe afterwards aſſumed other titles; Ruſſia adopted that of czar, or emperor, and the dukes of

of Poland and Bohemia were ſtyled kings. The Ruſſians having been taught Chriſtianity by the Greek church, were never, like the others, ſubject to the authority of the popes, nor to the councils of the Latin church.

What has juſt been ſaid of the Sclavonic language gives us occaſion to obſerve that there are four mother tongues in Europe, of which all the other languages are only dialects; viz. Greek, Latin, German, and Sclavonic. In the year 987 the crown of France, which had been refuſed to a deſcendant of Charlemagne, was given to Hugh Capet, duke of France, already in poſſeſſion of a conſiderable fief. He, by aboliſhing the cuſtom of dividing eſtates amongſt younger children, put his kingdom into a poſture to recover its former grandeur, which it did by degrees, by the eſcheatment of fiefs to the crown, by marriages, and ſucceſsful wars.

The dukes of Normandy, ſo lately ſettled in France, became ere long the rivals of her kings. William, the greateſt of them, rendered himſelf maſter of Britain by the

1066. battle of Haſtings, in 1066, and was hence ſurnamed the Conqueror: with his new acquiſition he retained his continental territories. Meanwhile ſome nobles of his nation, of whom the chief was Tancred de Hauteville, marched into Italy, deſpoiled the Greek emperors and the Saracens of their poſſeſſions in that country, and were acknowledged ſovereigns of Calabria, Apulia, and Sicily. About this time Lorrain was erected into a duchy; and from the year
1108. 1108 commence the counts, afterwards dukes of Savoy; and now kings of Sardinia.

The court of Rome was never ſo fertile in intrigues, there never were ſo many churches and monaſteries founded, nor ſo many fictions and ridiculous ceremonies invented, as in theſe unhappy times of ignorance and corruption. The Greek church retained more learning, and had admitted fewer abuſes.

FIFTH

FIFTH PERIOD.

From the Year 1097 *till A. D.* 1400.

SUCH was the ſtate of Europe, till about the end of the eleventh century, when a ſpirit of chivalry, united with devotion, and inflamed by the preaching of a Monk called Peter the Hermit, inſpired its inhabitants with a deſire of waging war againſt the Saracens. Their object was to diſpoſſeſs thoſe Infidels of the Holy Land, which they had long poſſeſſed; their enmity to the faith rendering them equally vexatious to the Chriſtians who had remained in that country, and to the numerous pilgrims who reſorted thither from Europe.

This project, which was termed a Cruſade, from the ſign of the Croſs, which all who engaged in it aſſumed, required that the cruſaders ſhould be upon good terms with the Comnenes, then Chriſtian emperors of Conſtantinople, which never was ſincerely effected. But a ſtill more formidable obſtacle preſented itſelf in the

Turks. This nation, which had originally come from Tartary, to aſſiſt the caliphs of the Saracens, had embraced their religion, and had gradually over-run Perſia, Syria, and part of Aſia Minor. How powerful they were, the magnificent empire they afterwards founded ſufficiently declares. With this warlike nation the Chriſtians muſt of neceſſity contend, in their paſſage to the Holy Land.

The hiſtory of the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, offers few other ſtriking objects beſides theſe expeditions of miſtaken piety, called cruſades. They were undertaken chiefly at the ſolicitations of the popes, whoſe intereſt and influence they promoted, and prodigious armies were raiſed to enſure their ſucceſs. The firſt of them proſpered ſo well, that after the
A. D. 1099. taking of Jeruſalem, in 1099, the princes chiefs of the cruſaders founded four ſovereignties in the Eaſt, namely, the kingdom of Jeruſalem, the principality of Antioch, the county of Edeſſa, and that of Tripoli. The great Godfrey of Bouillon was firſt king of Jeruſalem.

Various

Various orders of knighthood, partly military, and partly religious, were inſtituted during theſe enterprizes: they were governed by grand maſters, ſubject to the pope, and became rich and powerful even in Europe. The emperor Conrad the Third, and Louis the Seventh of France, marched in perſon to the Holy Land in 1147, at the perſuaſion of St. Barnard, abbot of Clairvaux, the man at that time moſt liſtened to both by princes and their ſubjects, but this expedition did not prove ſucceſsful. That in which the emperor Frederic Barbaroſſa, Philip Auguſtus of France, and Richard king of England, united againſt ſultan Saladin, was not more ſo: Barbaroſſa died in Cilicia; the two kings quarrelled; and though Richard gained a conſiderable victory after the departure of his rival, and even conquered the iſland of Cyprus, which remained near four centuries in the hands of the Chriſtians, no advantages of any magnitude were reaped from all the great exploits atchieved by the Chriſtians.

Roger, a Norman lord, grandſon of Tancred de Hauteville, above named, unit-

ing Apulia, Calabria, Sicily, the territories of Capua and Benevento, and afterwards the duchy of Naples, which his relations had eſtabliſhed, formed of all theſe
1199. provinces, in the year 1129, a flouriſhing kingdom, under the title of kingdom of the two Sicilies. He afterwards compelled the pope to acknowledge his rights, and admit him to do homage for his territories. After a few generations this kingdom paſſed into the houſe of Swabia, by the marriage
1194. of Conſtantia, in 1194, with the emperor Henry the Sixth, and remained ſubject to Germany till the death of the emperor
1250. Frederic II. in 1250. Three republics, Venice, Genoa, and Piſa, then powerful by ſea, ingroſſed in theſe times almoſt all the trade of the Mediterranean, and furniſhed the cruſaders with veſſels. The power of England was at a great height, under Henry II. who beſides Normandy, poſſeſſed Anjou, Poitou, and Guienne, and conquered Ireland; but Scotland ſtill had her own kings, and was perpetually at war with the Engliſh. Theſe ſoon, under their unworthy monarch John, loſt a great part of their territories

in

in France. All Normandy, with Anjou, Touraine, and other provinces, were ſeized by Philip Auguſtus, and confirmed to him by his victory at the battle of Bouvines, in 1214. His ſucceſſor, Louis VIII. im- 1214.
proved his advantages over them, which might have been completed by Louis IX. who gained the battle of Taillebourg, and other advantages, but that his moderation reſtrained him. This monarch was not ſo ſucceſsful in the expedition againſt the Saracens of Egypt, in 1249, where he was 1249.
taken priſoner, and could not be ranſomed but at an immenſe price. From thence the Chriſtians loſt ground in the Eaſt ſo much, that they were ſoon obliged to leave Paleſtine.

The brilliant conqueſt of the town and empire of Conſtantinople, by the French and Venetian cruſaders in 1204, had not 1204.
more ſtability. The Latin emperors, Baldwin and his ſucceſſors, were not able to keep it above 58 years againſt the Greek emperors, who had retired into the provinces of Aſia. The family of the Paleologi filled the imperial throne from that time. The Venetians, however, reaped ſubſtantial

ſtantial benefits by this conqueſt, by keeping what had fallen to their ſhare, namely, the Morea, the iſle of Candia, and Dalmatia.

The means of the cruſades were not only employed againſt Infidels, but from an ambitious policy, and a ſpirit of intolerance, which diſgraced the Chriſtian profeſſion, armed princes, and raiſed the multitude againſt thoſe they called rebels to the church. Thence a cruſade was proclaimed,
1206. about 1206, againſt the count of Toulouſe, and thoſe of his ſubjects called Albigenſes, whoſe opinions were much the ſame as thoſe of the Proteſtants have been ſince. Againſt the ſame devoted wretches the formidable tribunal, called the Inquiſition, was firſt eſtabliſhed. Nobody doubted then of the propriety of burning thoſe accuſed of hereſy or witchcraft, an opinion to which many victims were ſacrificed throughout Europe, in this and the ſucceeding ages, and which, to the ſhame of humanity, is not yet in all parts intirely eradicated. Thus Rome ſtill ruled the world by her pontiffs, as ſhe had done formerly by her Cæſars.

The

The efforts of ſome warlike princes, ſuch as Barbaroſſa, and his grandſon, Frederic II. and Philip II. of France, to reſiſt the extravagant pretenſions of the popes, formed and kept up in Italy two factions; that of the Guelphs, attached to the power of Rome; and that of the Gibelines, to the emperors. Theſe broils gave an opportunity to ſeveral cities and lords of Lombardy, who held fiefs, for which they did homage to the ſee of Rome, to render themſelves independent; but the popes never failed, when an opportunity offered, to exert their authority, which they did in a very unwarrantable manner, with reſpect to the crown of the two Sicilies, taking it from Conradine, laſt prince of the houſe of Swabia, to give it, in 1268, to Charles 1268.
count of Anjou, brother to St. Louis IX. of France, whoſe deſcendants kept it till the year 1434.

But the power of the popes began to decline, from the abuſe they made of it, and was alſo checked by the long ſchiſm begun in 1378, when the conclave ſepa- 1378.
rated into two parties, each of which elected a pope. Theſe prelates, known by the

names

names of popes and anti-popes, reſided, the former at Rome, and the latter at Avignon; ſo that for 40 years the Latin church was divided, and ſcarce knew which head to acknowledge.

Great part of Aſia became, in the beginning of the 13th century, the prey of Tartar Mahometans, who, under the conduct of Genghiſkan, left that country, and eſtabliſhed their domination in Perſia, and in that part of India now called the Mogul empire. Other princes from the ſame country took poſſeſſion of China, ſo that Aſia was for a time over-run by the Tartars, almoſt as much as Europe by the in-
1296. vaders from the North; and in 1296 the foundations of the Ottoman empire were laid in Bithynia, by Oſman or Ottoman. The name of Turk was common originally to many tribes which iſſued from the North of Aſia.

1273. In the year 1273 Rodolphus count of Hapſburgh was elected emperor, and thus with him began the glory of the houſe of Auſtria, which ſince, with few interruptions, has poſſeſſed the imperial throne in Germany. But the emperors continued to

loſe

loſe ground in Italy, where many towns, ſuch as Bologna, Florence, and Lucca, acquired privileges which made them independent republics. The ſame thing happened in Germany, and in the kingdom of Burgundy, where the towns of Hamburgh, Cologne, Frankfort, Ulm, Nuremberg, Spires, Beſançon, Geneva, Lauſanne, &c. became municipal, and were called imperial cities.

The republic of Switzerland began in 1307, by the confederacy of ſome of the cantons againſt their Auſtrian governor, whoſe vexations excited them to ſhake off the imperial yoke. 1307.

Philip the Sixth, the firſt king of the collateral branch of Valois, aſcended the throne of France in 1328, by virtue of the ancient Salic law, which excluded females from the ſucceſſion. The pretenſions of Edward the Third of England to his crown, by the female line, involved him in a war, in which he loſt the battle of Crecy, and near 30,000 men, in the year 1346. He was not equally unfortunate in all things, but in 1349 ſtrengthened his crown by the acceſſion of Dauphiny, which was 1328. 1346. 1349.

left

left to him by legacy: from this time the eldeſt ſons of France were called Dauphins. King John, his ſon, being taken priſoner
1356. by Edward prince of Wales, in 1356, France was for many years in great confuſion. Charles V. however, recovered by degrees thoſe provinces which his father had given up to the Engliſh. But that country was again in a diſtracted ſtate under the inglorious reign of Charles VI. Philip the Bold, youngeſt ſon of king John, who had been inveſted with the duchy of Burgundy, roſe to ſtill greater power by his marriage with the heireſs of Flanders, to which his ſucceſſors added all the reſt of the Netherlands. Theſe dukes of Burgundy, of the blood-royal of France, had a great and pernicious influence, particularly during the reign of Charles VI.

In Spain, the kings of Leon, Caſtille, Arragon, and Portugal, gained ground upon the Moors, whenever they united againſt them, but were too often at variance among themſelves to expel them
1356. entirely. In 1356 the right of election which the German diet had aſſumed at the death

death of the emperor Lewis III. was confirmed to ſeven electors, princes of the empire, by Charles IV. The edict eſtabliſhing theſe rights was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, and called the Golden Bull. The electors originally appointed were the archbiſhop of Treves or Triers, Mentz or Mayenne, and Cologne, the king of Bohemia, the count palatine of the Rhine, the duke of Saxony, and the marquis of Brandenburg. Some changes ſince made will be noticed in their proper places.

In 1386, Jagellon, duke of Lithuania, or Ladiſlaus V. became a Chriſtian, and was elected king of Poland, to which that duchy is ſtill annexed. 1386.

This period begins to ſhew us times leſs unfavourable to ſcience. The Jews diſperſed in Aſia and Europe, perſecuted in many countries, and tolerated in others, had ſchools in which it was revived by their learned rabbies, particularly in Spain and Languedoc; ſome Greek books, tranſlated into Arabic by order of the caliphs of Bagdat, who encouraged learning, had created even in the Saracens a taſte for aſtronomy,

aſtronomy, geography, philoſophy, and phyſic. Theſe ſtudies, as alſo chymiſtry, were ſoon introduced in Spain and Italy, where that of theology, ſuch as it was, flouriſhed. The canon law, by which is meant the decrees of the popes and councils, was alſo much ſtudied. The ſtudy and adoption of the Roman law, which, ſince the code of Juſtinian was found at
1137. Amalphi in 1137, had become an object of general attention, is reckoned by the firſt hiſtorians among the moſt material cauſes of the improvement of ſociety in Europe. Colleges and univerſities were founded in many places, whence iſſued a multitude of doctors and ſcholaſtics, who, notwithſtanding their degrees, had more ſubtilty in diſpute than real ſcience.

The writings of Ariſtotle and St. Auguſtin were the oracles of theſe ſchools, the firſt for philoſophy of every kind, the latter for theology. Thoſe who were thought then to underſtand them beſt, as Scot, Lombard, and Thomas Aquinas, were revered and admired.

This period was alſo the reign of the monks, their numbers increaſed exceedingly

ingly under various names and habits, particularly ſince the order of Mendicants was eſtabliſhed.

Some uſeful inventions ſignalized the fourteenth century; ſuch was that of the mariners compaſs, which rendered voyages leſs hazardous; and that of gunpowder, which changed almoſt entirely the art of war.

In moſt of the Southern countries of Europe the peaſants obtained freedom from villenage, and the citizens formed corporations, and acquired privileges, which diminiſhed the diſtance between them and the nobility. They even acquired in ſome countries the right of voting in the general aſſemblies of the eſtates, by ſending their deputies, who ranked after the clergy and the nobles: theſe aſſemblies were called parliaments in England, and diets in Germany. Princes could not ſettle affairs of moment without convoking them, as they had but few troops in their pay, and had not the power of enacting laws, and levying taxes, without their concurrence.

A taſte for muſic and poetry began about this time to prevail in Italy and Provence: they

they made verſes in the vulgar tongue, which was a corruption of Latin; they wrote chronicles and romances, acted farces, and were facetious even in their ſermons.

Knights aſſembled to ſhew their dexterity and valour in tournaments and bull-baitings, and began to wear arms in their ſhields and ſeals.

MODERN HISTORY.

FIRST PERIOD.

From the Year 1400, *till the Election of Charles* V. *in Germany, A. D.* 1519.

THE fifteenth century, which, according to the diviſion here obſerved, is the firſt of Modern Hiſtory, is fertile in great events. The progreſs of the Turks in Aſia was ſtopped by Timur Beck, or Tamerlane, Chan of Tartary, who, having conquered Perſia, took Bajazet priſoner, in
1401. 1401. They were not long after checked in Europe alſo, by Scanderbeg, prince of Epirus, otherwiſe called George Caſtriot, and by John

John Corvin, ſurnamed Hunniades, vaivode of Tranſylvania, who was general to Ladiſlaus VI. king of Poland and Hungary. He compelled the ſultan Amurath the Second to raiſe the ſiege of Belgrade, defeated him in a general engagement, and made him ſue for peace. This peace being perfidiouſly broken by the Chriſtians, Amurath defeated and killed Ladiſlaus in the battle of Varne, in the year 1444. 1444.

Mahomet the Second, ſon of Amurath, already in poſſeſſion of Macedon and Greece, took Conſtantinople in 1453, which has been 1453. ever ſince the capital of the Turkiſh empire; thus putting a final period to the Eaſtern empire, in the perſon of the Greek emperor Conſtantine Paleologus. The inhabitants of Greece have, however, preſerved the free exerciſe of the Chriſtian religion. In the Weſt, the ſchiſm which divided the church had ceaſed at laſt, by the care of the emperor Sigiſmund, and other princes, who cauſed for that purpoſe a council to be held at Conſtance, in 1415; in 1415. which both the popes were depoſed, and a third elected in their ſtead, by the name of Martin V. The perſons and doctrine of

John

John Huſs and Jerom of Prague were alſo condemned in this council. They had ventured to expoſe the abuſes of the Romiſh church, as Wicliff had done in England. But the execution of this ſentence did not prevent the number of their adherents from daily increaſing, and they formed a powerful party in Bohemia, under the name of Huſſites, which was not eaſily defeated. Eugene IV. ſucceſſor to Martin V. repenting of having convoked a
1431. council at Baſil in 1431, transferred it to Florence, whither the Greek emperor John Paleologus ſent deputies, with a view, if poſſible, to unite the Greek to the Latin church, but this only wrought a feigned and tranſient union. But the council of Baſil, not thinking themſelves legally diſſolved, and having pronounced their authority to be ſuperior to that of the pope, elected in his room Amadeus VIII. of Savoy, the firſt of that houſe, who had aſſumed the title of duke, and who had abdicated in favour of his ſon Lewis. He took as pope the name of Felix V. but after eleven years abdicated, in order to reſtore peace to the church, by making room for Nicolas

V. In the beginning of this century, Henry the Fifth, king of England, invited by the infirmities of Charles VI. and the diſtracted ſtate of his kingdom, which, in conſequence of the murder of John duke of Burgundy, had been long torn by the contending factions of Burgundians and Armagnacs, revived the pretenſions of his predeceſſors to the crown of France. He proſecuted them with ſo much ſucceſs, that in a ſhort time he became maſter of half the kingdom, and even of Paris itſelf. The treaty of Troyes, formed by the queen and the Burgundian party, abſolutely excluded the dauphin, gave him the princeſs Catharine in marriage, and ſettled the crown on him and his iſſue. Neither Henry nor Charles VI. very long ſurvived this treaty, and the dauphin, then Charles VII. gradually retrieved his affairs, partly by his own abilities, partly by the ſuperſtitious ardor excited in his people by the pretenſions of the maid of Orleans, and partly by his reconciliation with the duke of Burgundy, Philip the Good. Thus in the courſe of a few years the Engliſh were ex-

pelled from all their poſſeſſions in France, except Calais.

A. D. 1461. Lewis XI. ſon of Charles VII. who began to reign in 1461, was an artful prince, and employed his cunning to render himſelf abſolute, availing himſelf of every opportunity to extend his dominions. Provence, Anjou, and Maine, were left him by the will of Charles duke of Anjou, who died without iſſue: he alſo reclaimed to the crown the dutchy of Burgundy, as a fief which could not lawfully paſs to Mary, heireſs of Charles the Bold, who after receiving two defeats from the Swiſs, had been ſlain near Nanci, in a battle againſt the duke of Lorraine, in 1477.

In the mean time England was torn by the diviſions of the houſes of York and Lancaſter, which did not end till the year A. D. 1485: at which time Henry VII. after the defeat and death of Richard III. finally ſecured his claim, by marrying Elizabeth, heireſs of the houſe of York.

Jvan or John III. Czar of Ruſſia, freed his country from the dependance in which the Tartars had held it for 300 years; he took Novogrod, ſubdued ſeveral petty princes, and

and is uſually regarded as the founder of the Ruſſian empire in its preſent extent.

In Italy many families roſe to the ſovereign power, the Viſcontis and Sforzas became dukes of Milan; the Gonzaguas, marquiſſes, and afterwards dukes, of Mantua; and the houſe of Eſte was eſtabliſhed in the dukedoms of Ferrara and Modena, which it ſtill retains. The credit of the Medicis was already very great in Florence, amidſt the troubles of that republic. The dominions of the houſe of Savoy were extended beyond the Alps, by the acquiſition of Piedmont. The republic of Venice loſt ſome of her poſſeſſions in the Levant, which were taken by the Turks, but made herſelf amends, by extending her dominions in Lombardy as far as Verona and Breſcia.

The crown of Sicily and Naples paſſed to the princes of Arragon, with whom it was in vain diſputed by the French, though their young king, Charles VIII. marched thither in perſon in 1494; he both conquered and loſt it again in a very ſhort time. From thenceforward the French maintained their pretenſions to the dutchy of Milan, and other claims in Italy, almoſt A. D. 1494.

always oppoſed by the popes and the Venetians, who ſtrengthened themſelves by the aid of Swiſs troops. The marriage of Charles VIII. with Anne, heireſs of Britany, (who afterwards married his couſin, Louis XII. ſurnamed the Father of his People) united for ever that dutchy to the crown; he recovered Milan, and part of the kingdom of Naples, but could not keep them long, having diſputes with the popes Alexander VI. and Julius II. The republic of Ve-
A. D. 1508. nice was threatened in 1508 by the pope, the emperor Maximilian, and the kings of France and Spain, who formed the league of Cambray for this purpoſe; but this formidable confederacy was ſoon diſſolved, by the defection and counter-action of pope Julius II. The inhabitants of Caſtille and Arragon, united and ſtrengthened by the marriage of Ferdinand and Iſabella, were at laſt able to expel the Moors from Spain, which they did finally by the reduction of Grenada,
A. D. 1492. in 1492. The power of the houſe of Auſtria was increaſed by the marriage of the emperor Maximilian with Mary heireſs of Burgundy, and ſtill more by that of Philip, his ſon, with Joan, heireſs to the kingdom of Caſtille and Arragon,

Arragon, which united ſo many crowns on the head of their ſon, Charles V. that we ſhall behold him ſoon the moſt powerful prince of his time.

But nothing can render the latter end of this period more remarkable than the great change which then happened in the minds and manners of all Europe. The inventions of the former century were now perfected, and carried into uſe. Long voyages were performed by means of the mariners compaſs. While the Portugueſe ſailed to the iſlands of Madeira, and, by coaſting down the Weſt of Africa, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, which opened to them a paſſage to the Eaſt Indies, and gave occaſion to their ſettlements at Goa, and other places: the Spaniards, under the conduct of Chriſtopher Columbus, diſcovered Cuba, St. Domingo, and other iſlands; and ſoon after the continent of America, under Americus Veſpucius, another Italian navigator, in the ſervice of Ferdinand and Iſabella. Theſe countries were called Weſt Indies, in oppoſition to thoſe in the Eaſt. The diſcovery of this new world gave greater extent to geography, navigation, and trade. A

thouſand novelties, good or bad, were brought from diſtant climates. Gold and ſilver grew more common. Trade, which till then had been almoſt wholly confined to the coaſts of the Mediterranean, was now carried on throughout the ocean, and the nations whoſe ſhores it waſhed ſoon drew to them thoſe profits which had hitherto fallen chiefly to the Venetians, Sicilians, and Genoeſe. About the ſame time, the infringements and violences of a multitude of petty lords were repreſſed; the nobility no longer remained ſhut up in their caſtles and fortreſſes, but frequented the courts and cities, which were rapidly improved by finer buildings, and a better police.

The art of printing, firſt diſcovered at Mentz in 1440, and ſoon introduced into other towns, ſpread knowledge by multiplying books. Many learned Greeks, who had been driven from Conſtantinople, when it fell into the hands of the Turks, retired into Italy, and were patronized either by the popes, or the munificent Laurence of Medicis: there they opened ſchools, and excited a general deſire to learn their language. Thus every ſource of claſſical and elegant learning was now laid

laid open; nor was the Hebrew language neglected by the learned, who juſtly thought it important to ſtudy the Bible in the original language. This increaſe of knowledge, as well as the great àbuſes in the church, of which the princes and univerſities ceaſed not to aſk redreſs at the court of Rome, deſiring there might be a reform in the head as well as in the members, gradually diſpoſed the minds of the people for the great revolution in religious opinions which ſo ſoon after was effected.

SECOND PERIOD.

From the Year 1519 *till the Beginning of Louis* XIV.*'s Reign in* 1643.

THE revolution above-mentioned commenced in the beginning of Charles the Fifth's reign, in 1519. Luther, an Auguſtine friar, and profeſſor of theology at Wittemberg in Saxony, had complained for ſome time of the ſcandalous traffic made by the court of Rome of indulgences, or full pardons for ſin, which were publicly retailed A. D. 1519.

in ale-houſes and on ſtalls throughout Germany. From writing againſt this, he was led to obſerve other abuſes of the papal power, and to examine points of faith and worſhip, till the whole fabric of the Romiſh church began to totter. He was liſtened to by an infinite number of people, and patronized by John Frederic, elector of Saxony; and neither the legates or the emperor were able to ſtop his progreſs. Amongſt his proſelytes he ſoon had imitators: Zuinglius, a doctor of Zurich, did not preach with leſs energy; and there aroſe at this time, from all quarters, writers and preachers, who were emboldened to labour in the ſame cauſe. Charles V. who wiſhed to render himſelf abſolute maſter of Germany, ſeized this opportunity of going to war with Frederic and the princes his allies: but he was not wholly ſucceſsful to the end; ſo that he and the pope agreed to convoke a council, which was held many years at Trent. All the decrees iſſuing from this council were ſo favourable to the pontiff, that the oppoſite party loſt all hopes of ever obtaining by that mode ſuch a reform of the abuſes complained of as was thought abſolutely neceſſary; but this

this denial of juſtice only ſerved to confirm them in their opinions. Europe thus became divided between the Roman Catholics, who, calling themſelves the true church, gave the name of heretics and rebels to all who differed from them; and the Proteſtants, who, although they differed in ſome points among themſelves, agreed in the moſt eſſential, and were unanimous in abjuring the errors of popery, introduced by ſuperſtition, and propagated by a tyrannical exertion of power. In Germany, France, Switzerland, and the Netherlands, the numbers were pretty nearly divided; but in England, Scotland, Sweden, and Denmark, the Reformation was almoſt univerſally embraced. Even in the countries moſt attached to popery, ſome advantage was derived from theſe free inquiries, the power of the popes being conſiderably limited, and confined almoſt entirely to ſpiritual matters.

Though the monks had now loſt a great deal of their influence, the new order of the Jeſuits, eſtabliſhed in 1440, became in a A. D. 1440. ſhort time, by the policy of its inſtitutions, an uſeful inſtrument in the hands of the pon-

tiffs. Some popes, as Leo the Tenth, and ſeveral princes, diſtinguiſhed themſelves by patronizing the fine arts, and encouraging a taſte for Greek and Roman literature.

The knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, expelled by the Turks from the iſland of Rhodes, in 1522, ſettled in that of Malta
A. D. 1530. in 1530. The Turks extended their dominions by the reduction of Ægypt. About this time a fanatic Mahometan founded the kingdoms of Morocco, and Fez: and Parma and Placentia were erected into dutchies in favour of the houſe of Farneſe.

England, diſtracted by the tyranny of Henry VIII. and the mercileſs bigotry of his daughter Mary, became formidable to her neighbours, under the wiſe government of Elizabeth, in whoſe long and flouriſhing reign the Reformation was finally eſtabliſhed. James VI. king of Scotland, her ſucceſſor, united the two kingdoms, ſtiled himſelf king of Great Britain, and took the name of James I. as he was the firſt of that name who had reigned over the whole iſland.

In Germany the ambition of Charles V. was checked by the Proteſtant princes, and

and ſtill more in other parts by Francis I. and Henry II. kings of France. The power of his family, which had been increaſed by the acquiſition of Bohemia and Hungary, for his brother Ferdinand, was weakened after his death, by being divided between that ſame brother, who was elected emperor in 1558, and his ſon, Philip II. A. D. 1558. Philip had for his ſhare Spain, the kingdom of Naples, the Milaneſe, the Netherlands, and the vaſt conqueſts in America. Not ſatisfied with being maſter of ſo many countries, he took poſſeſſion of Portugal, which remained ſubject to Spain for near a century. But the treaſures brought from Mexico and Peru did not make amends to that kingdom for the loſs of inhabitants it ſuſtained by the expulſion of above 100,000 Jews, and by the migration of great numbers to the New World. It was weakened alſo by the revolt of part of the Netherlands, which being weary of the Spaniſh yoke, erected themſelves into a republic, under the name of the United Provinces. This new confederacy, formed in 1572, found in her marine, A. D. 1572. her trade, the virtues of her citizens, the aſſiſtance of her allies, and the conduct of the

princes of Orange her chiefs, aſtoniſhing reſources, which enabled her to ſuſtain a long and vigorous war againſt her ancient maſters, and even to diſpoſſeſs them of ſome of their ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies.

Meanwhile France, ill-governed under the three ſons of Henry II. was torn by the Catholic league, formed to exclude the king of Navarre, afterwards Henry IV. the lawful heir of Bourbon, as being a Proteſtant. But he ſucceeding to the throne
A. D. 1589. in 1589, at the death of Henry III. eſtabliſhed his claims by his valour, and finally condeſcended to ſilence his enemies, by becoming a profeſſor of the Roman Catholic religion. He, however, provided for the Proteſtants of his kingdom by an edict made at Nantz, which inſured to them the free exerciſe of their religion, with all the other privileges that had already been granted them. Henry having thus eſtabliſhed peace in France, turned his thoughts to the humiliation of the houſe of Auſtria, the two branches of which, in Germany and in Spain, gave umbrage to all the princes of Europe; but the hand of an aſſaſſin put
A. D. 1610. an end to his projects, in 1610, and the execution

execution of them was ſuſpended till another reign. The cardinal of Richelieu, miniſter to Louis XIII. his ſucceſſor, encreaſed the power of the king ſo much as to make it no longer neceſſary to aſſemble the ſtates. He ſtrenuouſly exerted himſelf againſt the Proteſtants, taking from them all their places of ſtrength; yet, finding it neceſſary to humble the houſe of Auſtria, he formed a league with the brave Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, to aſſiſt the German Proteſtants againſt the emperor: theſe confederates, by repeated victories, humbled the Imperial eagle, and put the princes of Germany into a poſture to aſſert their rights, both ſpiritual and temporal. At the ſame time, the United Provinces finally eſtabliſhed their freedom; ſo that in the beginning of the enſuing period they were univerſally acknowledged as an independent ſtate, by the treaty of Munſter.

The houſe of Braganza had aſcended the throne of Portugal in 1640, and that kingdom has ſince remained wholly independent of Spain. The progreſs of natural philoſophy was as rapid in this century as that of literature had been in the preceding. A. D. 1640.

THIRD

THIRD PERIOD.

From the Year 1643, *the Acceſſion of Louis the Fourteenth, of France, till the Peace concluded at Paris in* 1763.

ALTHOUGH France paſſed at this time under a minority, during which ſhe was torn by factions, yet ſhe ſoon recovered her former conſequence, and even gained the aſcendancy in Europe, during the long and brilliant reign of Louis XIV. whoſe generals marched over the Netherlands, Alſace, Franche-Comté, Germany, and Spain; and though ſometimes vigorouſly repulſed, were generally ſucceſsful. A long war of 18 years, between the houſe of Auſtria and the confederated powers of France and Sweden, was concluded by the treaty of Munſter, called
A. D. 1648. alſo the peace of Weſtphalia, in 1648. Spain was not included in this treaty, but continued at war with France till the treaty of the Pyrenees. This peace produced a change among the electors of Germany. The electoral dignity had, in 1621, been taken from the counts palatine, and conferred on the dukes of Bavaria: this treaty reſtored the former, without removing

moving the latter, thereby increaſing the number of the electors. In 1692, the year after the treaty of Munſter, England was ſtained with the blood of her king, Charles I. who loſt his life on the ſcaffold, by a ſentence hitherto unprecedented, the judgment of his own ſubjects. Five years after his death, he was ſucceeded by Cromwell, his chief opponent, who had the power of a king, under the leſs formidable title of Protector. France, in the mean time, was diſtracted by her internal commotions, between cardinal Mazarine and the parliament of Paris; the former ſupported by Anne of Auſtria, the queen-mother, at that time regent of the kingdom; and the latter, by the clamours of the people, and the machinations of the famous cardinal de Retz. The war with Spain was rather feebly carried on, but France at length gained the ſuperiority. In 1655, the ſultan Ibrahim, a weak and diſſolute prince, was put to death by the Janiſſaries, who crowned his ſon, Mahomet IV. in his ſtead. The French, fearing that England ſhould aſſiſt Spain, entered into an alliance with Cromwell, on which Charles II. who had taken refuge in

A. D. 1692.

A. D. 1655.

A. D. 1656. in France, retired to Bruſſels. In 1656 Don John of Portugal died, and left his crown to Don Alphonſo, his ſecond ſon. Chriſtina, queen of Sweden, who two years before had abdicated in favor of Charles Guſtavus, prince palatine, her couſin, in order to embrace the Roman Catholic religion, took a journey into France, and from thence to Rome, where ſhe ſoon after fixed her reſidence for the remainder of her life.

A. D. 1658. In 1658 the Spaniards, to the number of about 30,000 men, headed by the prince of Condé, and Don John of Auſtria, coming to the reſcue of Dunkirk, then beſieged by the French, under the great Turenne, were routed; Dunkirk was taken, and given up to the Engliſh, as their treaty had engaged. After this, the progreſs of the French in the Netherlands was conſiderable. In the ſame year, after an interregnum that had laſted above a twelvemonth, from the death of Ferdinand III. Leopold Ignatius, of Auſtria, his ſon, king of Hungary and Bohemia, was proclaimed emperor in the diet held at Franckfort, and crowned at the ſame time.

On

On the death of Cromwell, with whoſe government the Engliſh nation had been long diſſatisfied, Richard his ſon proved inadequate to the ſupport of the protectoral dignity, and Charles II. was reſtored to the crown and kingdom of his father in 1660.

In 1659, the treaty of the Pyrenees was concluded between France and Spain, and Louis married the infanta Maria Thereſa of Auſtria. A. D. 1659.

Some kingdoms which had hitherto been elective, now became hereditary; as Bohemia, under Ferdinand II. in 1648; and in 1661, Denmark, under Frederic III. who deprived his nobles of all their privileges.

In 1662 Charles II. married Catherine, infanta of Portugal, who brought him as her portion the town of Tangier, in Africa: he reſtored Dunkirk to France for a conſiderable ſum of money. Soon after, the Turks marched into Hungary, but were defeated by the aſſiſtance of the French, and concluded a treaty for twenty years with the emperor. Portugal and Spain were at war, and the latter had the advantage. In 1665 the pope, Innocent the Tenth, A. D. 1662.

Tenth, condemned by a bull the doctrine of Janſenius. Philip IV. of Spain died, and left his kingdom to his ſon, Charles II. during whoſe minority Mary Anne of Auſtria, his mother, was to act as regent. The Engliſh and the Dutch were at variance about the Weſt India trade. The king of France, who had concluded a treaty with the latter three years before, aſſiſted them; and the Engliſh loſt the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's, in 1666, but it was given back to them, by the peace which was concluded the year following. In 1667, the year after the death of his mother Anne of Auſtria, Louis XIV. went to war with Spain in ſupport of the claims he had by the deceaſe of Philip IV. and of the infant Don Balthazar. He made a league, offenſive and defenſive, for ten years, with Alphonſo, king of Portugal, and marched into the Netherlands, where he carried every thing before him. In the following year his progreſs was yet more rapid; he made himſelf maſter of Franche-Comté in about a fortnight. Europe was greatly alarmed at the ſucceſſes and pretenſions of Louis, in oppoſition to whom a league, called the Triple Alliance,

A. D. 1666.

Alliance, was formed by England, Holland, and Sweden. This meaſure was effectual; the victorious Louis thought it neceſſary to reſtrain his ambition for the preſent; and a treaty of peace was ſigned at Aix-la-Chapelle this ſame year, by which he ceded Franche-Comté, and retained his conqueſts in the Netherlands. About the ſame time, the war between Spain and Portugal was concluded, after thirty years continuance, and Alphonſo VI. acknowledged as lawful monarch of Portugal. But that prince, who was weak and profligate to an extreme, was ſoon after deprived both of his crown and queen, by his brother, Don Pedro.

In the ſame year John Caſimir king of Poland abdicated, and retired into France, after having obtained from the eſtates of his kingdom a penſion. His ſucceſſor, Wienowiſki, was elected in 1669. The Turks, A. D. 1669. who after having contended in Hungary with the emperor, had turned their arms againſt the Venetians in Candia, took that iſland in 1669, notwithſtanding a conſiderable aid ſent thither by Louis, whoſe admiral, the duke of Beaufort, fell there in a ſally.

ſally. Don John of Auſtria, natural ſon of Philip IV. cauſed the grand Inquiſition to be baniſhed for a time from Spain. The French monarch, either incenſed againſt the Dutch for their interference in the triple alliance, or ambitiouſly bent to conquer that country, had art enough to detach both England and Sweden from that league in the courſe of three years. In the beginning of 1672, France and England declared war againſt Holland. Louis paſſed the Meuſe in May, and took from them no leſs than forty ſtrong towns in about two months. Amſterdam was only preſerved by the deſperate method of breaking the dikes, and laying the country under water. The emperor, the elector of Brandenburg, and the king of Spain, jealous of theſe ſucceſſes, now ſtepped forth for the protection of Holland. But the terror and dejection of the Dutch was fatal to their excellent penſioner De Witt, and raiſed the prince of Orange to the dignity of ſtadtholder. The confederate kings endeavoured in vain to perſuade him to betray the people who had thus confided in him: Louis, not diſcouraged by any oppoſition, retook

A. D. 1672.

Franche-

Franche-Comté. Meanwhile the Turks, availing themſelves of the revolt of the Coſſacks, invaded Poland; but John Sobieſki, grand-marſhal of that kingdom, gained a victory over them at Choczim, in 1673, which raiſed him to the throne. A. D. 1673. The enſuing year negociations were continually going on towards a pacification between France and Holland, but the demands of the former were too high to be acceded to. Add to this, that the States of Holland were now gradually recovering by ſea and land: and ſo much progreſs had been made by the Dutch and Imperialiſts, in 1673, that Louis was obliged to relinquiſh all his conqueſts in the Netherlands. In 1674 Charles II. was obliged by his parliament to make peace with Holland. In 1675 the French king had a ſevere loſs, in his great general Turenne. In 1676 he was more ſucceſsful; his admiral, the duke de Vivonne, whom he ſent to ſupport the revolted Neapolitans, gained three victories againſt the united fleets of Spain and Holland; and Ruyter, the Dutch admiral, died of a wound he received in the ſecond engagement:

engagement: he gained alſo ſome advantages in Flanders. The kings of Sweden and Denmark, who had commenced hoſtilities the preceding year, alternately defeated each other in this, and the elector of Brandenburgh took the iſland of Rugen and the town
A. D. 1677. of Stetin from the Swedes. In 1677 the French proceeded ſtill more victoriouſly in Flanders; but being exhauſted, though ſucceſsful, by the war, a treaty was concluded at Nimeguen, which had been ſet on foot two years before. By this treaty that of Munſter was confirmed. In 1681 and 1682 the pope and the king of France had ſome diſputes. The following year the Turks, being recalled into Europe by the Hungarians, then in rebellion, beſieged Vienna, which, when in the moſt imminent danger, was relieved by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, and by Charles duke of Lorraine: their victory was very ſignal and complete. On pretence that the Spaniards had not fulfilled the conditions of the laſt treaty, Louis laid ſiege to Luxemburg, and hoſtilities were on the point of being renewed on both ſides; but the Spaniards finding themſelves

ſelves too weak to maintain the conteſt, and the emperor being unable to aſſiſt them, a truce for twenty years was concluded, in 1684, between Spain, France, and the empire. A. D. 1684. The French monarch was now at the heighth of his glory; he increaſed his marine, humbled the Algerines, and, being incenſed at the Genoeſe, for having aſſiſted them and Spain, ſent a large fleet to bombard Genoa; and obliged the doge to come to France, and make ſubmiſſion to him. In 1685 Charles II. of England died, and was ſucceeded by his brother, James II. The emperor, who had been almoſt overpowered by the Turks, had by this time gained a ſuperiority over them, which Germany has ever ſince preſerved. Louis XIV. loſt, by the revocation of the edict of Nantz in this year, a great number of his moſt faithful ſubjects, who carried the French manufactures to his neighbours, and chiefly into England; thus ſacrificing to his bigotry an inexhauſtible ſource of wealth.

In 1687 the Turks depoſed Mahomet IV. and placed Soliman III. his brother, on the throne. A. D. 1687. This year, and the following,

following, the pope and the king of France renewed their quarrels, wherein the latter gave full proof of the peremptory haughtineſs of his temper. The eſtates of Hungary having aſſembled at Preſburg to elect the archduke, Joſeph, eldeſt ſon of the emperor, a decree paſſed, enacting, that the crown of that kingdom ſhould henceforward be elective in the houſe of Auſtria, and that in default of that branch, the houſe of Spain ſhould ſucceed it.

In the mean time, no power in Europe forgot or forgave the pride and aſpiring politics of Louis XIV. The emperor, in particular, as ſoon as he found himſelf relieved from the attacks of the Hungarians and Turks, was the firſt to ſet on foot a confederacy, for the purpoſe of humbling this ambitious rival. His endeavours produced, in 1687, the famous league of Augſburg, in which Germany, Spain, and Holland, were principal parties: Denmark, Sweden, and Savoy, ſoon after acceded to it, and England, in 1689; nor was the war carried on with much vigour on any ſide till that year. But in the very begin-

A. D. 1687.

beginning of 1689, all the contending powers were in motion. Louis ſending his troops into the palatinate, laid it waſte with fire and ſword. As if to puniſh him for this horrid piece of wanton cruelty, every thing was unfavourable to him in this campaign; and his allies the Turks, were yet more ſeverely handled. But in 1690, affairs took a contrary turn: France was ſucceſsful in Savoy, in Catalonia, and in Flanders. Her fleet, under the count de Tourville, defeated the combined fleets of England and Holland; and the Turks retook the whole of the Upper Hungary. A. D. 1690.

The indiſcreet zeal of James II. for the Roman Catholic religion, and his love of abſolute power, had prepared the minds of his people for the revolution that happened in 1688; when he was obliged to leave the kingdom, and William prince of Orange, his ſon-in-law, preſumptive heir to the crown, in right of his wife, was elected by the convention of the remaining eſtates who had voted the throne vacant. The exiled monarch retired into France, with his queen and ſon, from whence he went to Ireland, where he was for ſome time re- A. D. 1688.

ceived, but ever unſucceſsful; at length the taking of Limerick by king William's
A. D. 1691. troops, in 1691, left him without reſources.

Soliman III. dying, the Janiſſaries choſe his brother Achmet, in excluſion of his children, and thoſe of Mahomet IV. In Europe the war was carried on with various ſucceſs. Monſieur Tourville was, in his turn, ſignally defeated by admiral Ruſſel and the Dutch fleet, off La Hogue, in 1692, but was again ſucceſsful off Uſhant, in 1693, cutting off a very conſiderable convoy under the protection of the combined fleets. Namur, which Louis had taken in 1692, was retaken by William, in 1694. The
A. D. 1697. war continued till 1697, when all parties being pretty well tired of a ſtruggle, in which ſlight advantages were purchaſed by an enormous waſte of blood and treaſure, a general peace was concluded at Ryſwick, by which it was ſettled that France ſhould reſtore to Spain all that had been taken ſince the treaty of Nimeguen; that the duke of Lorraine ſhould be put into poſſeſſion of his dutchy; that Louis ſhould not poſſeſs any thing beyond the Rhine, on the ſide of Germany; and that he ſhould acknowledge

ledge William as lawful king of Great Britain.

John Sobieſki having died the year before, Frederic Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, was elected to the crown of Poland, and abjured Lutheraniſm for the Roman Catholic faith. In 1699, the ſucceſſes of the emperor obliged the Turks to accede to propoſals of peace. But Europe was not long to enjoy this profound calm; the death of Charles II. of Spain, in 1700, by which the Spaniſh branch of the houſe of Auſtria became extinct, gave riſe to new contentions between the German branch and the houſe of Bourbon: both claimed the right of ſucceſſion, and all the powers of Europe took a part in their quarrel. Louis, though unſucceſsful in this war, yet reaped one great advantage from it, the placing Philip his grandſon on the throne of Spain and the Indies.

In 1701, the electorate of Brandenburg was made a kingdom. The ſame year James II. died, and Louis, notwithſtanding the treaty at Ryſwick, acknowledged the prince of Wales, his ſon, as lawful heir of Great Britain. William regarded this as an in- A. D. 1701.

fringement of the late peace, and was preparing to go to war with France, when he died of a fall from his horſe, in 1702. Queen Mary had died ſeven years before him without iſſue, he was therefore ſucceeded by Anne, ſecond daughter of James, married to George prince of Denmark. Anne entered into the grand alliance, formed between the kings of Pruſſia and Portugal and the duke of Savoy, to oblige Louis XIV. to recal his grandſon, in order to place the emperor's ſecond ſon, the archduke Charles, on the throne of Spain. This war overthrew the whole ſplendid fabric of glory which Louis had been ſo anxiouſly employed to raiſe. The battles of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, afforded formidable proofs of the ſuperiority of the allies. Our great and fortunate general, the duke of Marlborough, was the ſoul of all their operations,—victory ſeemed devoted to him. The war continued till 1713; when, after two years negociation, it was concluded by the treaty of Utrecht. By this treaty, Philip V. was acknowledged king of Spain, but was to renounce all eventual hope of ſucceſſion to the crown of France, as the

A. D. 1713.

next

next heirs of that monarchy were to do alſo with reſpect to the crown of Spain. Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, obtained the kingdom of Sicily. Louis reſtored what he had taken from Holland, in the Low Countries, and promiſed to demoliſh the fortifications of Dunkirk: the frontier of Germany was left in the ſame ſtate as at the peace of Ryſwick. Britain kept, in America, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Hudſon's Bay, and the iſland of St. Chriſtopher; with Gibraltar and Port Mahon, in the Mediterranean. The emperor had for his ſhare the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, the dutchy of Milan, and the Netherlands. And the Dutch were to be allowed to garriſon ſeveral towns in the Auſtrian Netherlands, for their ſecurity. The archduke Charles, the competitor of Philip V. had ſucceeded to the empire in 1711, at the death of his brother Joſeph, and therefore had the more willingly relinquiſhed the crown of Spain.

Our attention is drawn to the North, at the beginning of this century, by two illuſtrious monarchs, Peter I. of Ruſſia, who by his perſeverance and fortitude deſerved

the ſurname of Great; and Charles XII. of Sweden, whoſe valour and intrepidity gained him thoſe of, the Lion, and the Alexander of the North. Charles humbled the Danes, and ravaged Ruſſia; dethroned Auguſtus, king of Poland, in 1704, and placed Staniſlaus in his throne. He carried his arms as far as Turkey, but he knew not how to avail himſelf of his ſucceſſes, to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects; and he reaped no other advantage from the ſacrifice of thouſands of lives, and the impoveriſhment of his kingdom, than that of having carried terror and deſolation from the Baltic to the Danube. But the Ruſſian monarch, on gaining the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, reſtored Auguſtus to the throne of Poland, which he filled till his death. The Czar Peter derived, by his patience and magnanimity, great advantages from every occurrence, even from his loſſes. He had viſited England incognito in 1708, and had worked in the dock-yards of Holland as a common carpenter. He brought from his travels obſervations on trade, navigation, and the art of war, which enabled him to draw Ruſſia from its former barbariſm, and

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to begin the great work, which being purſued by his ſucceſſors, has rendered it a flouriſhing as well as an extenſive empire.

Queen Anne dying in 1714, the elector of Hanover of the houſe of Brunſwick, the neareſt proteſtant heir to the crown, was proclaimed king of Great Britain and Ireland, by the name of George I. A. D. 1714.

Louis XIV. dying in 1715, left the finances of his kingdom exhauſted by the long continuance of war. He was ſucceeded by his great-grandſon Louis XV.; and Philip duke of Orleans governed during the minority. His regency, though fatal to many individuals, whoſe fortunes were loſt in the Miſſiſſipi ſcheme, nevertheleſs gave time to France to reſtore her finances, and to recover, during a long peace, the loſs of inhabitants ſhe had ſuſtained by the ambition and bigotry of her late ſovereign.

Many fruitleſs efforts were made to reſtore to James the Second's ſon, called the Pretender, the crown of his anceſtors, and an actual rebellion was excited in his behalf in 1715, which, however, was ſoon

ſuppreſſed; but when his hopes were at an end his intereſt in France ceaſed, and in 1717 he was obliged to quit Avignon, and to retire into Italy. His intereſts were, however, eſpouſed by Spain, and Charles XII. of Sweden; but the latter being ſlain
A. D. 1718. at Frederickſhall in 1718, the project formed in his behalf fell to the ground, and his cauſe became once more deſperate. The year following produced the famous quadruple alliance, a treaty entered into by the Emperor, France, Great Britain, and Holland, for the purpoſe of preſerving the tranquillity of Europe, which was likely to be endangered by the machinations of Philip V. king of Spain. This monarch, inſtigated by his ambitious miniſter, Alberoni, had in 1717 ſeized Sardinia, ſent a fleet againſt Sicily, and claimed the dutchies of Parma, Placentia, and Tuſcany, in right of his ſecond queen, Elizabeth Farneſe, the preſumptive heireſs. He alſo aſſerted his right to the crown of France, in caſe of the death of the young king, and to the regency during his minority. The allied powers ſtipulated among themſelves, that the duke of Savoy ſhould exchange with

with the emperor the iſland of Sicily for that of Sardinia, of which he ſhould be ſtyled king; and that the infant, Don Carlos, ſhould be entitled to the ſucceſſion to Tuſcany, Parma, and Placentia, in right of his mother. The allies were ſucceſsful, and Philip was obliged to ſubſcribe to their conditions in the year 1719. In 1720 the A. D. 1720 failure of the South Sea ſcheme, an adventure ſimilar, and immediately ſubſequent, to that of the Miſſiſſipi in France, was greatly prejudicial to the fortunes of very many individuals in England, and to the public credit. In the ſame year peace was concluded between Ruſſia and Sweden.

Peter the Great took the title of Emperor of Ruſſia in 1721; and dying in 1725, was ſucceeded by his empreſs Catherine. He had loſt two ſons within a few years; the eldeſt, Alexis, under ſentence for treaſonable practices, had died in priſon; the other, an infant, born of the empreſs Catherine, did not long ſurvive his half-brother.

George I. dying in 1727, was ſucceeded A. D. 1727 by his ſon George II. which wrought no

change in the affairs of England. In 1731 Don Carlos took poſſeſſion of the dutchies of Parma and Placentia. The emperor diſſolved the company of Oſtend, formed a few years before, on condition that England, France, and Holland ſhould guarantee the Pragmatic Sanction; that is, a law by which the hereditary dominions of the houſe of Auſtria were to deſcend to females in default of male heirs.

Europe enjoyed peace till 1733, when the king of Poland dying, Staniſlaus Luzinſky, whom the Czar Peter had dethroned, was again elected; but the emperor, whoſe niece the elector of Saxony, Auguſtus's ſon, had married, obliged the Poles to give up their firſt choice, and elect him. He reigned under the name of Auguſtus III.

Louis XV. who had married Staniſlaus's daughter, joined with the kings of Spain and Sardinia, and war was begun on the Weſtern frontiers of Germany, and in Italy; it was carried on with ſucceſs, ſo that the emperor having loſt Naples, Sicily, and Milan, ſued for peace, and a treaty was concluded in 1735, by which it was ſtipulated, that Staniſlaus ſhould renounce Poland,

land, and be inveſted with Lorraine for his life, after which that dutchy was to be re-united to France;—that the duke of Lorraine ſhould have a penſion from the king of France, till the death of John de Medicis, the laſt of that line, whom he ſhould ſucceed in the dukedom of Tuſcany;—that Don Carlos, ſon to Philip, ſhould be acknowledged king of the Two Sicilies, and the emperor ſhould have in exchange the dutchies of Parma and Placentia, and cede to the king of Sardinia part of the Milaneſe. The year following the empreſs of Ruſſia went to war with the Turks, and was ſoon after joined by the emperor; but the generals of the latter being often defeated, he obtained a peace by the mediation of France; and Catherine, though victorious, entered into the treaty.

In 1740 the emperor Charles VI. the laſt prince of the houſe of Auſtria, died, and left no other heir than his daughter, the archdutcheſs Maria Thereſa, wife to Francis of Lorraine, grand duke of Tuſcany. The French, joined by Frederick III. of Pruſſia, maintained againſt her the claims of Charles Albert of Bavaria, who was ac- A. D. 1740.

tually crowned emperor, under the name of Charles VII. But this ſucceſs was tranſitory, and Maria Thereſa found reſources in the love of her ſubjects, and the ability of her generals. Theſe, together with the aſſiſtance of the kings of Great Britain and Sardinia, enabled her, notwithſtanding the loſs of Sileſia, which the king of Pruſſia took, and of the battle of Fontenoi, in 1745, in which the French defeated the Hanoverians and the Dutch, her allies, to place the grand duke on the Imperial throne. He was crowned at Frankfort, under the name of Francis I. Charles VII. being previouſly dead, and his ſon, Maximilian Joſeph, having renounced all claim to the Auſtrian ſucceſſion, on which condition he was inveſted with his electorate and dutchy of Bavaria.

By a treaty concluded at Dreſden, the king of Pruſſia kept Sileſia, and the Elector Palatine acknowledged Francis I. The aſſiſtance afforded the queen of Hungary by George II. having diſpleaſed a part of the Britiſh nation, ſome of them turned their eyes once more towards the Pretender, and prince Charles, his ſon, landed this year in Ireland,

Ireland, and thence paſſed into Scotland; where, after having gained a victory, he entered Edinburgh in triumph, and marched into England. When he had proceeded within an hundred miles of London, not being ſupported as he had expected, he found it neceſſary to go back to Scotland, where he loſt the deciſive battle of Culloden. For five months after this defeat he wandered in diſguiſe, in the unfrequented parts of Scotland, and having been often in the moſt imminent danger of falling into the hands of his enemies, at length effected his eſcape to the continent. In 1746 the North of Italy was deſolated by the Imperialiſts, and the king of Sardinia was oppoſed by the French and Spaniards. Soon after the death of Philip V. which happened this year, Genoa was taken by the Auſtrians, but the inhabitants, driven to deſpair by the oppreſſion of their conquerors, ſoon expelled them, and took effectual meaſures for their future ſecurity. Ferdinand VI. had ſucceeded his father on the throne of Spain. Nothing of importance happened this year in the Weſt Indies, nor in America; but the French took Madras,

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on the coaſt of Coromandel. Meaſures were taken by the Auſtrians, Britiſh, Dutch, and the king of Sardinia, to ſtop the progreſs of the houſe of Bourbon in the Netherlands and Italy. Numerous armies were raiſed on all ſides, and took the field
A. D. 1747. in 1747; when the Dutch, having loſt many important places, grew diſſatisfied with their leaders, and, being alarmed at the rapid progreſs of the French, elected the prince of Orange to the Stadtholderat, a dignity which had been laid aſide ſince William III. The French were leſs ſucceſsful in Italy, and their fleets were defeated every where by thoſe of Britain. Preparations for a continuance of the war were making on all ſides, when a ceſſation of hoſtilities took place, and a treaty was concluded at Aix-
A. D. 1748. la-Chapelle; by which it was ſtipulated that the infant Don Philip ſhould have the dutchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guaſtella, which, if he died without male heirs, or ſucceeded either to the crown of Spain, or that of the Two Sicilies, ſhould return to their preſent poſſeſſors, the empreſs queen, and the king of Sardinia, or their deſcendants;—that all the contracting powers

ſhould

ſhould guarantee to the king of Pruſſia Sileſia, and the country of Glatz;—that all thoſe who had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, ſhould renew their engagements;—and, finally, that the contract termed the Aſſiento, for ſupplying the Spaniſh ſettlements with negroes, ſhould be enjoyed by the ſubjects of Great Britain; to which ſtate Madras was reſtored, as Louiſbourg was alſo to the French. This treaty reſtored tranquillity to Europe, by eſtabliſhing that much wiſhed for balance of power, which alone could enſure it.

But this tranquillity was neither general, nor promiſed from the firſt to be permanent. Notwithſtanding the harmony that appeared in Europe, the intereſts of the rival powers were too much at variance in other parts, to ſuffer them to continue long at reſt. From the very year of the peace France was eagerly employed in augmenting her naval force, in extending her power in the Eaſt Indies, and in endeavouring to connect, by a continued chain of forts, her diſtant American colonies of Canada and Louiſiana. Her active ambition produced, in 1753, the firſt propoſal for a ſolemn compact

compact between the two great branches of the houſe of Bourbon. But the politics of Spain were not yet ripe for ſuch a meaſure.

In the mean time the ſtruggle for power and territory had produced thoſe wars in the Eaſt Indies, in which the military genius of Clive was ſo often diſtinguiſhed. His firſt efforts were againſt M. Dupleix, and Chunda Saib, the Nabob ſupported by him, whoſe attempts he effectually counteracted. And in America petty contentions for certain forts and territories of doubtful right were forming a prelude to the war, which
A. D. 1755. in 1755 was openly commenced between the French and Britiſh nations, and which drew into the conteſt moſt of the other European powers.

In the ſpring of that year two fleets were ſent out to the coaſts of North America, one from France for Canada, the other, a counter-fleet of obſervation, from Britain. The main bodies of theſe fleets paſſed each other in a thick fog, but a partial engagement took place between two ſhips on each ſide, in which two French men of war, the Alcide and the Lys, were taken. The Britiſh

tiſh government, perceiving that the war was now inevitable, purſued the blow, and immediately iſſued ſuch orders as cauſed the capture of 300 trading veſſels belonging to the enemy.

But in other reſpects the war commenced inauſpiciouſly to Britain. General Braddock with his whole party was cut off in an expedition againſt fort du Queſne on the Ohio, and other attempts made in that quarter proved abortive. On the Firſt of November 1755 happened that dreadful earthquake which deſtroyed the greateſt part of Liſbon. The parliament of Britain immediately gave £.100,000 for the relief of the unhappy ſufferers.

In 1756 the war ſpread itſelf over the greater part of the continent of Europe. Germany, France, Ruſſia, and Sweden, were combined againſt Pruſſia and Great Britain. The objects of their hoſtilities were, the recovery of the territories conquered by the king of Pruſſia, and the diverſion of the force of Britain, by obliging her to defend Hanover. She was, indeed, as unfortunate in this campaign as her enemies could deſire: the miſconduct of admiral Byng, and the conſequent A. D. 1756.

ſequent loſs of Minorca, the total want of ſucceſs in America, and the melancholy affair of the Black Hole at Calcutta, all conſpired at once to depreſs the ſpirits of her people. The king of Pruſſia, however, was making Germany the theatre of heroic actions. The great battle of Lowoſitz in 1756, and thoſe
A. D. 1757. of Prague, Roſbach, and Liſſa, in 1757, were ſcenes of diſtinguiſhed triumph to him: the only ſevere check he ſuffered was from Mareſchal Daun, at the battle of Kolin. Dreſden and the whole of Saxony had ſubmitted to him. The convention of Cloſter-Seven, in 1757, in which the duke of Cumberland was obliged to make terms, to preſerve his army from deſtruction, was of the complexion of the other fortunes of England at this juncture. But in the year
A. D. 1758. 1758 affairs began to take a different turn. Pitt, who was then at the head of the Britiſh adminiſtration, communicated the vigour of his genius to all the operations of his country. The expeditions againſt the coaſt of France, though attended with no brilliant ſucceſs, and in themſelves rather diſadvantageous than uſeful, were attended with this advantage, that they rouſed the

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ſpirit of the people, and taught them rather to threaten invaſion than to dread being invaded. The taking the iſland of Cape Breton in America was a ſolid advantage.

In 1759 Guadaloupe, and ſome other of the French Weſt Indian iſlands, ſubmitted to the Britiſh arms, and within a ſhort time afterwards Ticonderoga, Niagara, and even Quebec, a capture in itſelf important, and rendered for ever memorable by the gallant conduct and heroic death of the Engliſh General Wolfe. Nor was Montcalm, who fell on the unſucceſsful ſide, leſs juſtly regretted and celebrated. In the Eaſt Indies, the arms of England under Colonel Coote were ſuperior to thoſe of France under *Lally*. In Europe, France ſuffered two defeats at ſea, the one off Cape Lagos, on the coaſt of Portugal, the other in the bay of Quiberon, under the ſhores of Britany. Theſe two battles, which made a deduction of ten capital ſhips from the marine of France, almoſt annihilated for the time her naval power; and Boſcawen and Hawke, the two victorious admirals, were celebrated in England as the protectors and avengers of their country. In A. D. 1759.

Germany,

Germany, the king of Pruſſia ſtill made a noble ſtand againſt the moſt diſproportioned numbers of enemies, but with leſs ſucceſs than formerly. He loſt Dreſden; and though the victory gained by his allies at Minden was of ſervice to him, his own defeat at Cunnerſdorf more than counterbalanced that advantage.

A. D. 1760. In 1760 his genius again prevailed; and the great victory which, in ſpite of a thouſand diſadvantages, he obtained at Torgaw, recovered to him the whole of Saxony, except Dreſden. The Britiſh continued to be ſucceſsful this year in America. And in the Eaſt Indies the taking of Pondicherry and Mahie by Colonel Coote, left the whole of the Carnatic in their power. On October 25, 1760, died George II. king of Great Britain. His ſucceſſor, however, deemed the war both juſt and neceſſary, and declared his reſolution to purſue it.

A. D. 1761. The year 1761 was yet productive of few great events. The affairs of Germany were nearly at a ſtand. The taking of the iſland of Belleiſle on the coaſt of France; the reſignation of Mr. Pitt, on being thwarted in council in his idea of the neceſſity of a Spa-

a Spaniſh war; and the complete juſtification of his ſagacity in the open avowal of the family compact, are the chief events that deſerve to be recorded.

Concerning this compact, ſuffice it to ſay, that it is the moſt intimate league of union, and the moſt hoſtile to the general intereſts of Europe, that ever has been formed.

But neither the acceſſion of the Spaniſh war, nor the loſs of her great and popular miniſter, could check the tide of victory which buoyed up the affairs of England. In 1762 Martinico, the moſt important of the French Weſt Indian iſlands, was taken; and Spain ſuffered, at the ſame time, no leſs ſeverely by the loſs of her moſt valuable town, Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba. In the ſame campaign fell alſo her Eaſt Indian capital, Manilla, the ſtipulated ranſom for which, to the everlaſting diſgrace of Spaniſh faith, has never been diſcharged. Portugal, which in conſequence of her alliance with Britain was attacked by Spain, was by that ally effectually protected. A. D. 1762.

In the midſt of theſe triumphs, the government of Great Britain thought it prudent

dent to consent to the opening a negociation for peace, which was accordingly concluded
A. D. 1763. at Paris early in the year 1763, on terms which were regarded at that time, in England, as far inferior to what the political situation of the kingdom at that period gave her a title to expect. Subsequent events, however, have shewn that enough was done to excite a strong jealousy of her in the other powers of Europe.

The king of Prussia, timely apprized of the intentions of his ally, concluded a separate peace on equal and honourable terms.

The events which have happened since this war are too recent to be admitted as a part of General History.

FINIS.